

Evolution: The Case of the
Glyceraldehyde-3-Phosphate
Dehydrogenase Gene

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Abstract

The enzyme Glyceraldehyde-3-Phosphate Dehydrogenase (GAPDH) catalyses the decomposition of glucose. The gene that produces the GAPDH is therefore present in a wide class of organisms. We show that for this gene the average value of the fluctuations in nucleotide distribution in the codons, normalized to strand bias, provides a reasonable measure of how the gene has evolved in time.

Key words: GAPDH - evolution - 4-dimensional walk model - evolutionary marker - persistent diffusion - random sequence normalised to strand bias

Introduction

Evolution makes lower organisms into higher ones. The distribution of the nucleotides in the genes that code for proteins undergo changes in the process. It is sometimes assumed these variations in the nucleotide distributions come about due to random mutations. In this work we present quantitative evidence that the changes in the bases of the GAPDH are remarkably well ordered.

The DNA sequence that codes for a single protein evolves as we go from one organism to the next. The evolution of the base composition of A, T, G and C for the same protein is the key to the dynamics of biological evolution. Some proteins are restricted to few organisms, others are more common. Amongst these proteins / enzymes, the glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) is present in all living organisms, as the key enzyme in glycolysis, the common pathway both in organisms that live in free oxygen and the ones that do not. The GAPDH catalyzes the dehydrogenation and phosphorylation of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate to form 1,3-bisphosphoglycerate.

The nature of the base organisation of the DNA sequences has been studied in the recent years (Voss 1992; Li and Kaneko 1992; Peng et al. 1992). The fractal correlations of $\frac{1}{f^\beta}$ type have been reported. These fractal correlations are more pronounced for the introns and the intergenic flanks. The exons, on the other hand, are characterised by strong peak at $f=\frac{1}{3}$ in the power spectrum. Here we work only with the exon regions and attempt to isolate the physical quantity that provides insights into the nature of evolution in the GAPDH.

With this in mind we pick the DNA sequences coding for the GAPDH enzyme from a wide

variety of prokaryotes, that include both bacteria and archaea (Woese et al. 1990), and eukaryotes (organisms with nucleated cells). Bacteria, in our study, is again subdivided into three groups: proteobacteria, *Bacillus/Clostridium* group and cyanobacteria. Due to paucity of data for archaeal GAPDH, we cannot subdivide the archaea; we compare it as a whole with the groups of bacteria under Prokaryota.

Zuckerkandl and Pauling (1965) laid the basis for the study of genes and proteins for evolution. Over the years there have been the search for the universal common ancestor (Volkenstein 1994; Doolittle and Brown 1994; Woese 1998; Doolittle 1999; Woese 2000; Doolittle 2000) that may have preceded the prokaryotes and the eukaryotes. The studies on the ribosomal RNA provided some of the insights (Woese and Fox 1977a, 1977b; Fox et al. 1980). The relative importance of the elements, such as mutations, lateral gene transfer (Krishnapillai 1996; Brown and Doolittle 1997; Jain et al. 1999; Ochman 2000), that drive the evolution of species continues to be under active investigation. In our work here with the GAPDH we try to isolate the physical quantity (called X) that measures the evolution in this gene.

Number Fluctuations

The coding sequences of the GAPDH genes from 42 different species, with 31 eukaryotes and 11 prokaryotes, were chosen (Source: GenBank and EMBL nucleotide sequence databases). These sequences have different distribution of the bases A, T, G and C. Since the codons are made of 3 of these bases, we divide the sequence into codons, i.e. choose the window size 3 bases long.

On these windows of size 3, we compute the square of the numbers of A, T, G and C and define $N(3)$ as:

$$N(3) = n_A^2(3) + n_T^2(3) + n_G^2(3) + n_C^2(3)$$

where $n_A^2(3), n_T^2(3), n_G^2(3), n_C^2(3)$ are the numbers of A, T, G and C respectively in the codon window of size 3. Thus if, for instance, A occurs in all the three positions we get $N(3)=9$. If two are identical we get $N(3)=4+1=5$. If all the positions are occupied by different nucleotides, we get $N(3)=1+1+1=3$.

Thus $N(3)$, for the window size 3, varies from 3 to 9 as we go from one codon to the next along the gene. We then compute the average value of $N(3)$, call it $\langle N(3) \rangle$, over the sequence. We notice here that a high value of $\langle N(3) \rangle$ implies repeats of the bases. This means persistent sort of correlation amongst the bases. In other words, higher value of $\langle N(3) \rangle$ implies a higher probability that the A, for instance, is going to be followed by the A. Conversely a lower value of $\langle N(3) \rangle$ implies an antipersistent order in the sequence leading to a lower probability for the A to be followed immediately by the A.

What do we expect for $\langle N(3) \rangle$ for the random sequence of identical strand bias? Strand bias is the proportion of A, T, G and C in the sequence. These proportions vary as we go from one GAPDH sequence to another. We want to isolate the effect above and beyond the strand bias, therefore, study the quantity X defined as:

$$X = \frac{\langle N(3) \rangle}{\langle N(3, r) \rangle} \quad (1)$$

where $\langle N(3, r) \rangle$ is the average value of the quantity $N(3)$ for the random sequence of identical total length and strand bias.

$\langle N(3) \rangle$ is measured for the sequences, while $\langle N(3, r) \rangle$ is calculated using a 4-dimensional walk (Montroll and West 1979; Montroll and Shlesinger 1984) model. Hence the quantity X is obtained.

To calculate $\langle N(3, r) \rangle$ consider the following walk model in 4-dimensions corresponding to A, T, G and C. If we encounter the symbol i (i=A, T, G and C) we move one step along i. In this directed walk the probability function for a single step clearly is :

$$P_1(x) = \sum_i p_i \delta(x_i - 1) \quad (2)$$

where $x \equiv (x_A, x_T, x_G, x_C)$, and $p_i = \frac{n_i}{N}$; n_i is the number of times the symbol i appears in the sequence; N is the total number of symbols, i.e. the length of the sequence. We want to get the distributions after m steps, and therefore, define the characteristic function of the single step:

$$\tilde{P}_1(k) = \sum_i p_i e^{ik_i}. \quad (3)$$

For m steps:

$$\tilde{P}_m(k) = [\sum_i p_i e^{ik_i}]^m \quad (4)$$

The quantity m is clearly the total number of steps, i.e. the window size. The moments of the distribution may be obtained by differentiating $\tilde{P}_m(k)$ with respect to k . In particular $\langle N(3, r) \rangle$ is just the second moment of distribution and obtained from $\tilde{P}_m(k)$:

$$\langle N(3, r) \rangle = [\sum_i \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{P}_m(k)}{\partial k_i^2}]_{k_i \rightarrow 0} \quad (5)$$

Using (4) and (5), we get:

$$\langle N(3, r) \rangle = m[(m-1) \sum p_i^2 + 1] \quad (6)$$

where we have used the relation $\sum p_i = 1$.

To crosscheck this relation, let us first set $p_A=1$; $p_T=p_G=p_C=0$. This is the case of maximal persistence. All the three bases, in this limit, are identical. From (6), we find:

$$\langle N(3, r) \rangle = 9, \quad (7)$$

as we expect.

To check again set $p_A=p_T=p_G=p_C=\frac{1}{4}$. The average value, from (6), gives:

$$\langle N(3, r) \rangle = 4.5 \quad (8)$$

For the window size $m=3$ the possible choices consistent with $p_A=p_T=p_G=p_C=\frac{1}{4}$ are $4 \times 4 \times 4 = 64$, namely, the 61 codons + 3 stop codons. Calculation of the $\langle N(3, r) \rangle$ for these 64 combinations is

straightforward and gives the value 4.5 in agreement with (8).

Nucleotide Sequence Comparison

The pairwise sequence alignment tool (ALIGN at the Genestream network server) available in the public domain gives a measure of the “distance” (or the cross correlations) between the sequences. These distances provide additional data towards the study of evolution in the GAPDH gene.

In the usual studies of evolution and phylogeny one relies exclusively on nucleotide sequence comparison. The rules used for alignment of sequences are constructed to give rise to the known pattern.

In contrast, the change in the value of the X appears to us as the physical quantity of interest in the evolution in the GAPDH gene. The nucleotide sequence comparison we use in this work as supplementary, supportive data.

The X of Evolution

The X values for the eukaryotes and the prokaryotes, for the GAPDH, for window size of 3, are given in Table 1.

Interestingly, the table 1 suggests two parallel lines of evolution, one for the prokaryotes; the other for the eukaryotes. Note the value of the X for the cyanobacterial genes is closer to that for the amphibian gene. The values for *Bacillus/Clostridium* group and archaea are more or less the

same as those for fish, and higher invertebrates such as arthropods.

As we look separately amongst the prokaryotes and the eukaryotes the X values increase as follows:

Prokaryota: *proteobacteria* < *archaea* < *Bacillus/Clostridium* group < *cyanobacteria*

Eukaryota: *fungus* < *invertebrate* < *fish* < *amphibia* < *bird* < *mammal (excl. human)* < *human*

It is to be remembered that in arriving at this increasing pattern the average value of the X over the members of the group has been considered. Within each group there are variations in the X (see Table 1).

Assume now the GAPDH gene began from common universal ancestor. The route diverged to give proteobacteria on one side; fungal and invertebrate genes on the other. The proteobacterial gene develops further into three, archaeal, *Bacillus/Clostridium* group and cyanobacterial, genes. The other trail from the fungus goes through fish, amphibia, probably reptilia for which the data is unavailable, birds and other mammals to reach its peak on humans.

Some groups have hypothesized that the eukaryotic species originated as the archaeal (e.g. *Thermoplasma*-like organisms) and the bacterial (e.g. *Spirochaeta*-like organisms) cells merged in anaerobic symbiosis and the GAPDH gene was contributed by the bacterial partner (Martin et al. 1993; Margulis 1996). Our results do not disprove this assumption. The X value averaged over all members of bacteria (i.e. proteobacteria + *Bacillus/Clostridium* group + cyanobacteria) becomes 0.9662 ± 0.028 that is close to the X values for the invertebrates and the fungi (Table 1).

Sequence Comparison

The pairwise alignment tool gives a measure of similarity, or distance, between the various GAPDH genes under consideration (Figure 1).

The results are fairly consistent with the picture that emerges from the study of the X. It suggests that the eukaryotic GAPDH genes might have originated from some eubacterial genes (Martin et al. 1993; Margulis 1996).

The alignment tool also suggests that both archaea and cyanobacteria may be quite distant from all other groups (Hensel et al. 1989; Arcari et al. 1993). As we measure the sequence similarity of the archaeal and the cyanobacterial genes with genes from the other two prokaryotic groups, we find the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group gene closer to them than the proteobacterial one. This too supports the view obtained from the X values of the prokaryotes.

The X Evolution of the GAPDH Exon

The plot of X for eukaryotes against their approximate period of origin in the geological time scale (Table 2) gives a fairly linear fit. We try a fit of the form $y = Kx + c$. For the slope K for the eukaryotes we get:

$$K_{euk} = \frac{\Delta X}{\Delta T} = 1.1 \times 10^{-4} (\pm 0.2 \times 10^{-4}) \text{ (myr)}^{-1}, \quad (9)$$

where myr≡million years. The computed χ^2 value is 0.00009 with 6 degrees of freedom.

The earliest lifeforms are thought to come about around 3500 million years before present (myr BP).

Presently we presume them as the proteobacterial ones. If the slope of the prokaryotic GAPDH gene

X-evolution is assumed close to that for the eukaryotes, (9), then the cyanobacteria must have arisen

$$\Delta T = K_{euk}^{-1} [X_{cyano} - X_{proteo}] = 493.5 (\pm 126.6) \text{ (myr)} \quad (10)$$

after the proteobacteria. In myr BP this is $3500 - [493.5 (\pm 126.6)] = 3006.5 (\pm 126.6)$. Similarly, the

periods of origin of the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group and the archaea may be arrived at, and given in

Table 3 and Figure 2.

Fossil stromatolites are macroscopic structures produced by some species of cyanobacteria. These are believed to occur from the early Precambrian (i.e., 3000 myr BP) to the Recent period (Thain and Hickman 1994). This is in good agreement with (10) for the time of origin of cyanobacteria obtained from the X-evolution.

For an alternate approach assume the cyanobacteria appeared around 3000 myr BP, and the proteobacteria 3500 myr BP. The rate of change of the X, i.e.

$$K_{pro} = \frac{X_{cyano} - X_{proteo}}{\Delta T} = 1.05 \times 10^{-4} \text{ (myr BP)}^{-1} \quad (11)$$

Thus the slope of the prokaryotic GAPDH gene X-evolution (11) comes out to be nearly identical to

that for the eukaryotes (9). Figure 3 shows the best linear fits for the prokaryotes and the eukaryotes,

which appear as two almost parallel lines.

Discussions

For the GAPDH exon the quantity X rises uniformly on two almost parallel paths - one for the prokaryotes; the other for the eukaryotes. The uniformity of rise in the X with time implies the genetic evolution is well-ordered; not the result of some random mutations.

The rise of the X implies the trend towards persistent correlations in the base arrangement of codons. That is, as we go up the ladder of evolution the probability that a nucleotide, for instance the A is followed by the A increases. Note the result is true for the window of size 3. Whether the increase in persistence continues for any window size remains outside the scope of our analysis. The increase in persistence in the window of size 3 gives a measure of the complexity of the sequences at this scale (Román-Roldán et al. 1998). The diffusive processes that have persistence are being studied widely in recent years. For the GAPDH gene, suppose we work in the basis of purine-pyrimidine instead of the full A, T, G and C. We find, amusingly, the persistent nature of the diffusion increases even more for the window of size 3. Going beyond the GAPDH we find there are other important genes that share these features.

For the archaea the sequence comparisons indicate that they are more or less equally distant from the other prokaryotes and the eukaryotes. Yet the X -measure of the archaea places them between the proteobacteria and the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group. The sequence information for the vertebrate

GAPDH genes, especially for the amphibia, as of now, is limited. The availability of more data would improve the results to a considerable extent.

The ordered, uniform X-evolution of the GAPDH exon allows us to estimate the times of origins of *Bacillus/Clostridium* group, cyanobacteria, archaea. The time of origin of cyanobacteria falls near the previous estimates.

To conclude, the GAPDH gene is shown to be a marker for evolution. Importantly, the physical quantity X, the second moment of the codon base distribution, normalised to the strand bias, bears the footprint of a remarkably ordered evolution.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Average % identity of nucleotide sequence in the GAPDH genes from different groups of organisms. The black lines and values imply the alignment results between the proteobacterial gene and the genes from all other groups; the pink lines and values for the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group gene with the other genes; the green lines and values between the archaeal gene and the other genes; and the blue lines and values for the cyanobacterial gene with the rest.

Figure 2. The probable periods of origin of the prokaryotes (see Table 3), along with the periods of origin of the eukaryotes (see Table 2), are plotted against the X values for the corresponding GAPDH genes (see Table 1). The error bars simply indicate the standard deviation from the average X values for the respective groups. Here the slope of the prokaryotic GAPDH gene X-evolution is assumed to be equal to that for the eukaryotes.

Figure 3. The best linear fit-curves both for the prokaryotes and for the eukaryotes, as we plot the X values vs. the periods of origin. The solid black lines denotes the best fit-curves. The slopes of the GAPDH gene X-evolution for the prokaryotes and the eukaryotes are found to be close enough to suggest two nearly parallel lines of evolution.

Table 1: The X values for prokaryotes and eukaryotes, along with the range of deviations in respective categories.

Category	X
I. PROKARYOTA	
proteobacteria	0.9445 (± 0.0127)
archaea	0.9892 (± 0.0075)
<i>Bacillus/Clostridium</i> group	0.9896 (± 0.0126)
cyanobacteria	0.9970 (± 0.0110)

Category	X
II. EUKARYOTA	
fungus	0.9623 (± 0.0121)
invertebrate	0.9677 (± 0.0134)
fish	0.9819 (± 0.0097)
amphibia	1.0098
bird	1.0102 (± 0.0021)
mammal (excl. human)	1.0234 (± 0.0019)
human	1.0301

Table 2: **Origin of eukaryotes in geological time scale.**

Category	Position in time scale (myr BP) (Stein and Rowe 1995; Pough et al. 1999)
Fungus	570
Invertebrate	510
Fish	439
Amphibia	363
Bird	146
Mammal (excl. human)	66.4
Human	1.64

Table 3: **Probable origin of prokaryotes in geological time scale as emerged from their X values.**

Category	Position in time scale (myr BP)
Proteobacteria	3500
Archaea	3079.5 (± 108.2)
<i>Bacillus/Clostridium</i> group	3076.0 (± 108.9)
Cyanobacteria	3006.5 (± 126.6)

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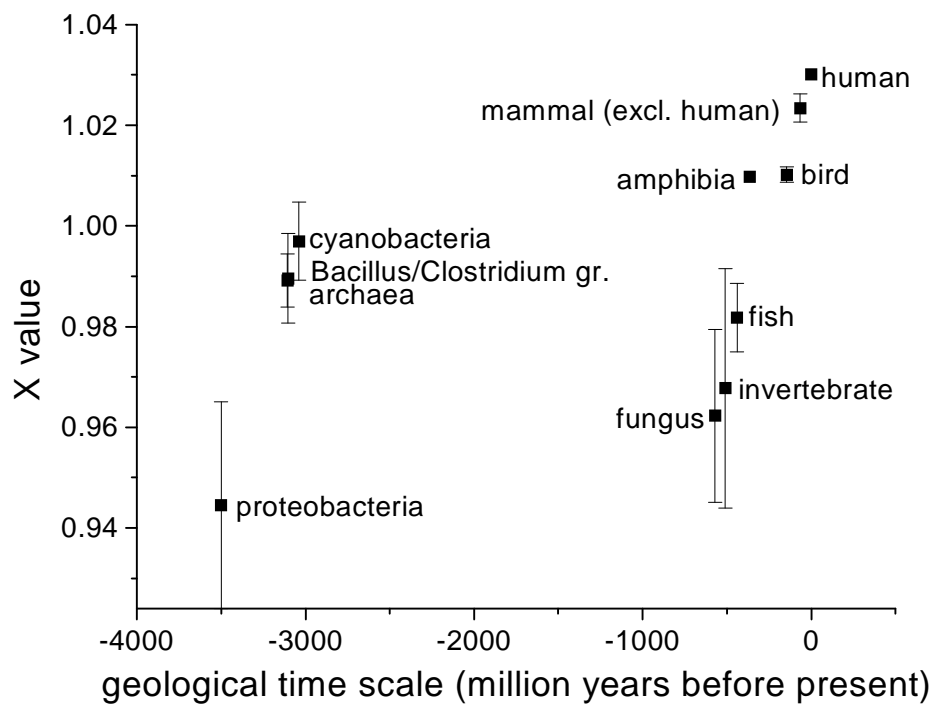


Figure 2

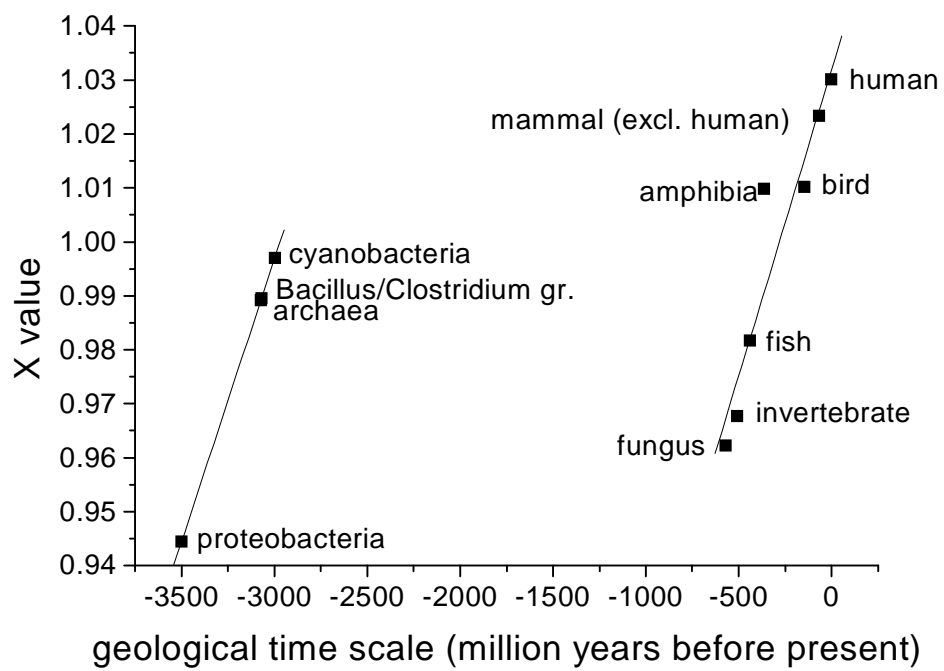


Figure 3